DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 032 887 JC 690 365

By-Hurlburt, Allan S.

State Master Plans for Community Colleges.

American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C.; California Univ., Los Angeles. ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Coll. Information.; Regional Education Lab. for the Carolinas and Virginia, Rougemont, N.C.

Report No-Monograph-8

Pub Date Oct 69

Note-55p.

Available from-American Association of Junior Colleges, One Dupont Circle, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 ($2.00)

EDRS Price MF-$0.25 HC-$2.85

Descriptors-*Junior Colleges, *Master Plans, *State Legislation

Comprehensive plans for 19 states, in use or recommended at time of writing, were studied for this Monograph. It establishes a rationale for state master plans, analyzes relevant literature, tells who is doing the planning, describes the process of developing a plan and getting it adopted, examines the 19 plans for content, suggests ways to implement them, and identifies areas of needed research. The major purposes of a state master plan are to: show concern for the education of both adults and adolescents; define an organized system of higher education instead of a group of institutions; meet both universal and diverse needs; outline a minimum foundation program; help community self-assessment of educational needs; remove college development from political and local pressures; set priorities; insure coordination of all higher education; provide a basis for further planning; disclose areas of needed research, encourage and facilitate the systematizing of routine state services, encourage cooperative planning by both private and public schools for their mutual benefit; reveal inadequacies in current laws and prepare for new legislation; serve as a public relations instrument; and bring together laymen and professional educators in a common endeavor. The author finds it fortunate that, with state planning for the junior college needed as never before, more and more of it is under way. (HH)

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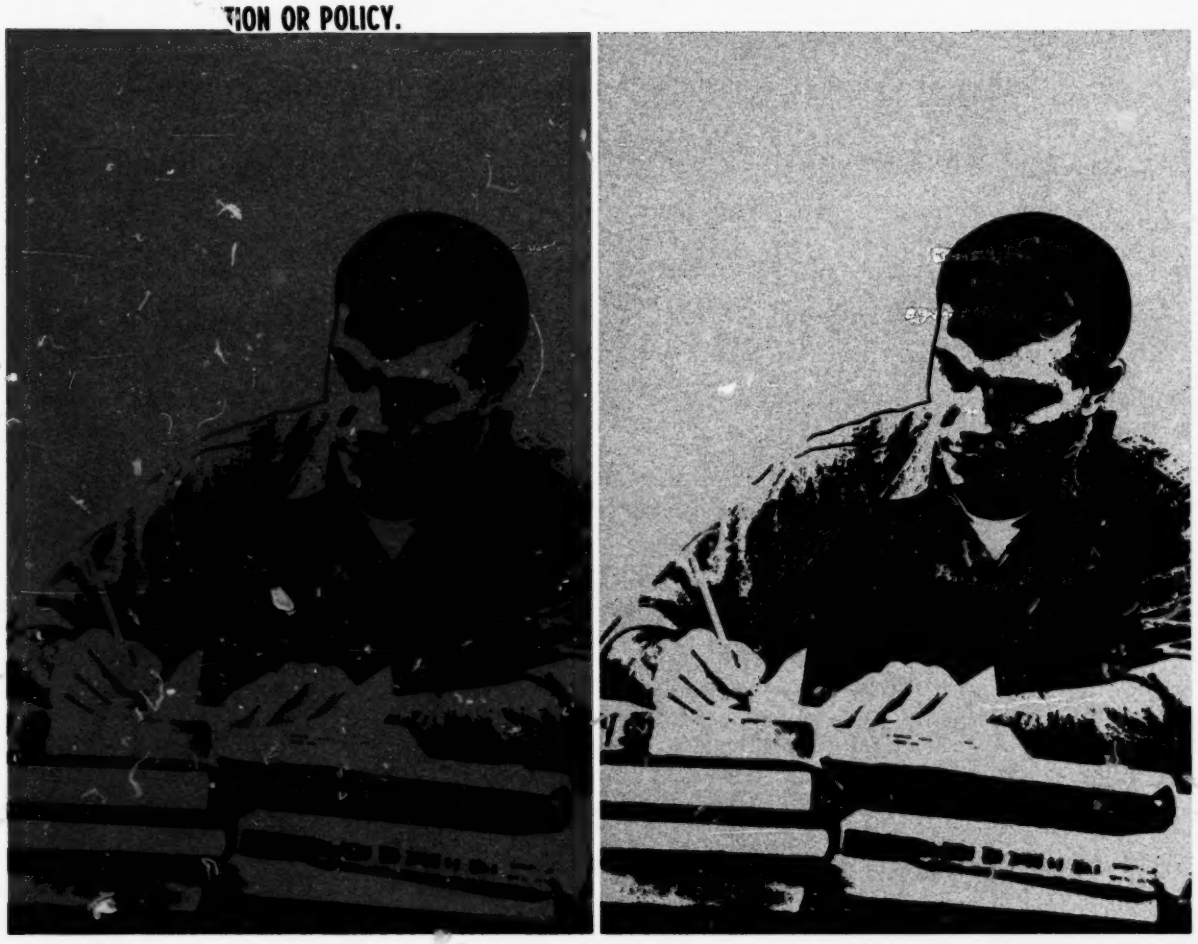

STATE MASTER PLANS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

By Allan S. Hurlburt

JC 690 365

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STATE MASTER PLANS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

By Allan S. Hurlburt

UNIVERSITY OF CALIF.
LOS ANGELES

NOV 05 1969

CLEARINGHOUSE FOR
JUNIOR COLLEGE

ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges
American Association of Junior Colleges
Regional Education Laboratory for the Carolinas and Virginia

MONOGRAPH SERIES: No. 8

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Printed in U.S.A.
October 1969

FOREWORD

The importance of planning has been emphasized repeatedly in American life during the past few years. Carefully developed market surveys, projections of consumer needs, estimations of needs, planning program budgeting systems—all of these are recognized as necessary elements of business and industrial development.

The public educational system has recognized the value of these tools and procedures in an increasing number of states. Legislatures concerned over possible limitations of resources and faced with rapidly increasing need for additional facilities have required specific attention to long-range planning in higher education. The number of states which have established coordinating boards and planning agencies increases each year.

The benefits of this emphasis upon master planning, however, are not centered in efficiency alone. The dedication of the American educational system to making universal opportunity for education a primary goal is easily documented. The dream of developing an educated citizenry able to produce in terms of their potential, and to live lives of productive happiness is not an idle dream. The social and economic benefits of education for society as a whole as well as for the individual are also recognized. Master planning also helps to assure these benefits.

Long-range planning helps a state gain confidence that will enable it to:

1. Determine sound estimates of its educational needs
2. Project the educational parameters for the future
3. Assess the resources which will be required
4. Develop a series of steps which will enable a congruence between needs and resources to be arranged.

In a way, this is merely saying that goals are determined and procedures identified which will help the state to reach these goals.

In the community junior college development, only a few states have demonstrated a really competent example of master planning. As a person who has actively participated in such planning, Allan S. Hurlburt of Duke University in North Carolina is in an unusually good position to draw some conclusions regarding master planning for junior colleges.

In this monograph he outlines some generalities relative to master planning, describes some outstanding examples, and derives some basic principles which will be useful to those who wish to analyze successful master planning. As one basis for these derivations, he has used the master plans for community colleges from nineteen states. This contribution to the literature on the coordination and control of higher education will be most useful to the serious student in the field, as well as to those whose interests are centered on solving their own specific problems.

The other thirty-one states will find the monograph useful.

James L. Wattenbarger

Director, Institute of Higher Education
University of Florida

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Appreciation is due the entire staff of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges for constant assistance with this manuscript. In particular, thanks are due Hazel Horn for her understanding and skillful editing, John E. Roueche for his valuable criticisms and suggestions, and Sylvia Howe for writing to all fifty states to obtain the master plans used in this monograph. Also, my thanks to Tina Britz of the AAJC Publications Division for her work in seeing the monograph through the final stages of editing, proofreading, and production.

Allan S. Hurlburt
Duke University
April 1969

INTRODUCTION

The community junior college, an educational form that has expanded along with the demand for increased opportunity for education beyond the secondary school, is now found in all fifty states. Its progression has been orderly in many regions, haphazard in others. In most states where master plans have been adopted, development has proceeded rationally, based on availability of finances and on community need. In many other states, the colleges have just grown.

In this monograph, the eighth in the ERIC Clearinghouse/American Association of Junior Colleges series, the author describes and analyzes the state master plans under which junior colleges have been organized in nineteen states. In addition, he makes recommendations for studies needed if the institutions are to persevere after the initial bloom of "expanded opportunity" has faded.

Allan Hurlburt, professor of education at Duke University, is currently serving as director of graduate studies at that institution. He has had a long and productive career in his chosen field.

Our thanks to Professor Hurlburt for contributing this monograph to our series, and to the U.S. Office of Education's ERIC project and the American Association of Junior Colleges for making possible its production.

Arthur M. Cohen
ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information

INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

chapter 1

In an age of extensive planning in government and industry, it is to be expected that planning in higher education would be a major consideration.

INTRODUCTION

Increasing evidence shows that in view of the ever-growing numbers of citizens who seek to meet a variety of educational needs in a time of mounting governmental costs and amidst demands for more and more public services, the states are turning to civic leaders for help in planning for higher education. No satisfactory way has been found to insure that the needs of all the people for post-high school education can be met adequately, efficiently, and within the resources available except by careful planning of programs and facilities at the state level. No other obvious means can be found of guaranteeing required comprehensiveness of programs without needless duplication of effort and facilities, and resultant waste of valuable and limited resources.

One has to admire the foresight of those states that have moved out in front in planning for community colleges on a statewide basis. The contribution they can make to states just beginning such planning is immeasurable, and it is hoped that an exchange of state master plans will take place among all states as rapidly as they are published.

The case for establishing and following a state master plan for public junior colleges was well stated by Kathleen Bland Smith in her 1964 article, "Crossroads in Texas," in which she asked:

> Will Texas junior colleges continue to grow as they always have—without plan or pattern, based simply on the desire and the energy of the people in the local district which they serve?
> Or will they become part of a master plan for higher education in

Texas, with course offerings determined by a strong, central coordinating board for public education beyond the high school? (42: 14)*

To "grow like Topsy" is hardly a proud accomplishment for a public junior college system when local, state, and national planning are of such great importance in a time of population explosion and intense competition for public funds.

Discussing the tremendous growth of junior colleges, AAJC Executive Director Edmund J. Gleazer, in the April 1968 issue of the *Junior College Journal,* pointed out that more than seventy new junior colleges opened their doors in 1967, and almost 200 more are being established. He estimates that enrollments of junior colleges in the next five years will double, reaching a total of about 3 million (17: 7).

Growth such as that experienced by public junior colleges in the past decade mandates a considerable amount of statewide coordination and planning. The alternatives are inequities in educational opportunity and in the use of financial resources.

PROCEDURES

In March 1968, the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges sent a letter to the chief school officer (or to some other person believed to be most knowledgeable about the public junior college system) in each state and in the District of Columbia, requesting "two copies of the officially approved state master plan under which public junior colleges are organized and operated in your state." Replies from officials in thirty states indicated that public junior colleges were not operated under a state master plan and, in five states, that they did not operate a state system of public junior colleges at all. Five failed to reply, and two sent only copies of their laws governing junior colleges; hence, it is reasonable to assume that of the fifty states and the District of Columbia not more than fifteen states operate a system of public junior colleges under an adopted state master plan.

It would be grossly erroneous to assume, however, that only in states with officially adopted state master plans is statewide planning going on. Letters from Arkansas, Indiana,** Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, and Utah all affirm that the development of a master plan is under consideration or under way at the present time. In several cases the plans embrace all phases of higher education—not just junior colleges.

Further evidence of statewide planning was received in the form of feasibility studies, consultants' reports, proposed plans, committee and commission reports, and progress reports of trustees or other boards. Evidence of statewide planning is often apparent in laws, in proposed laws and regulations, and in publications of state standards and guide-

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* Bracketed numbers refer to bibliographical entries on pages 43 to 46.

**Copies of the Indiana plan, published in December 1968, and the Oklahoma plan, published in May 1968, were subsequently received.

lines. In all, materials were received from approximately half the states, indicating an active concern for statewide planning in at least that many.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

State plans, in use or recommended, from nineteen states* were used in the preparation of this monograph. Not included were reports that did not seem comprehensive enough to be state master plans, guidelines or procedures for establishing public junior colleges, state laws, consultants' reports (unless they were referred to as state master plans), and feasibility studies.

The monograph undertakes to establish a rationale for state master plans; analyzes the literature relevant to such plans, indicating who is involved in planning, what is planned, and something of the process of developing master plans and getting them adopted; analyzes the major areas of content of the nineteen plans; sets forth suggestions for the establishment of such plans; and identifies areas of needed research.

RATIONALE

The literature of community college development in states that have achieved a state master plan is replete with accounts of the struggles of strong and visionary leaders or groups to bring about a state system of community colleges so that every citizen might have the opportunity to receive the education for which he has the capacity, whether vocational, technical, or general academic and whether short-time, terminal, or transferable.

What the master plan can—and should—show is the immediate outcome, and the blueprint for the ultimate outcome—an educated citizenry. The state master plan then becomes the device through which the junior college philosophy is translated into the terms of a state, a group of citizens, the individual—to insure that the processes of community college education are made clear, consecutive, and understandable in relation to the processes of other levels or kinds of education within the state.

Perhaps the rationale for developing a state master plan can best be demonstrated by the following major purposes, or uses, of such a plan.

1. *The state master plan is a way for the state to express its concern for the educational welfare of its adolescent and adult citizens.*

In many cases, such a statement will stress the importance of education to the state, to industrial strength, or to the individual. It may include an expression of belief in low tuition or no tuition, in scholarships, or in placing institutions close to the populations to be served. It may

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* California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Virginia, and Washington.

present the amount of the state's educational assets measured against its unfulfilled needs or describe the characteristics of the populations to be served—their economic, cultural, and social needs. Only through analysis and planning at the state level are all the needs of all the people likely to be provided for.

2. *The state master plan describes an organized system of higher education, not just a group of institutions.*

Such a description will indicate the relationships, to each other and to the state, of the institutions that together provide the educational opportunities incorporated in the plan. Relationships of private to public institutions and to the state may well be charted. Ways for the existing institutions together to meet the needs of the state in higher education, or ways for them to be supplemented in order to meet these needs adequately may be presented in this context.

Since the federal government is playing an increasingly important role in higher education, the way the state will use federal assistance to supplement state and local effort in meeting state and local needs may well be a part of the master plan.

3. *A state master plan provides a way of meeting both universal needs and diverse needs.*

There are more two-year needs to be met than four-year, more undergraduate needs than graduate. The same vocational or technical needs do not usually exist in all parts of the state. In a well-conceived master plan, differential functions can be planned, assigned, and justified. Flexibility and adaptability can be built into the plan as seems warranted, and through the plan, into individual facilities and programs as desired. Of particular interest to the local community may be the knowledge that although its college is basically like others in the state, it can differ in important ways.

4. *A state plan is an effective way to describe a minimum foundation program.*

In all states except where community colleges are wholly state controlled, financed, and operated, those aspects of the program that are universally required and those that are supported by the state constitute the floor or foundation of the educational program. The ceiling is normally established by local community and individual effort through tax support and gifts affecting facilities, salaries, programs, operations, or student assistance.

The minimum foundation program may describe the financial structure only, but the state plan is likely to delineate minimum program standards and degree requirements, or it may deal with student affairs and curriculum as well.

5. *A state plan assists communities to assess their own capabilities and readiness to develop a college.*

Without the aspirations, pride, and initiative of local communities, many community colleges would never have come into existence. However, without a state plan showing an adequate minimum of foundation requirements, many an inadequate college could make an unwarranted start. A well-conceived state master plan shows communities how to measure available assets against those needed to organize and sustain a community college. Such a plan provides a broader-than-local perspective from which to judge needs and the ability to meet them. It also provides a broader base for understanding the need for state priorities.

6. *A master plan provides a means of removing community college establishment and development from purely political considerations and local pressures.*

Experience in more than one state has shown the wisdom of proceeding according to a well-defined plan rather than according to the influence of a powerful legislator understandably eager to provide his district with the best opportunities available, whether they can be justified or not. More than one legislature has failed to enact good legislation because of a barrage of such requests.

A master plan provides the basis for making a unified request for financial support to the legislature, not only for the establishment of community colleges, but also for their expansion and development. A master plan takes away from the legislature at least a part of the need to decide how much to give whom and for what purpose.

7. *The state master plan is an effective vehicle for systematic planning and for establishing priorities.*

Where are the needs greatest? Least well provided for? Growing the fastest? These are problems best answered through state planning. State funds are limited and demands upon them boundless; hence, their use must be justifiable. Systematic planning for orderly growth and development of community colleges is a way of preventing waste of resources and avoiding inequities in educational opportunity in the state.

Maximum returns from limited funds are needed; therefore, there is no room for needless duplication of effort or for inefficiency in community college planning or operation. A state master plan is a way of achieving adequacy without waste. Prudent determination of financial priorities is essential in an era of population expansion and its accompanying demands for increased kinds and amounts of public service.

The development of community colleges systematically, area by area, in Florida, as reported by Dr. Gleazer, shows the value of state planning for systematic development. Commenting on the fact that in June of 1967 the legislature established the final junior college area in Florida,

thus completing the master plan envisioned by the Community College Council in 1957 and putting community college services within reach of 99.6 per cent of the population, Dr. Gleazer stated "That this development took place in a systematic and orderly fashion is as noteworthy as the fact that it was done in a decade" (18).

8. *A state plan serves to insure coordination of higher education effort.*

The meaning of coordination is spelled out in the Oklahoma plan, which states: "Coordination is the planning for and systematic allocation of responsibility and resources among institutions to promote maximum efficiency and effectiveness in the achievement of higher education goals" (6: 8).

More than just adequate administrative relationships are contemplated here. Institutions have both primary and residual functions if all the needs of society are to be met. Meeting these needs requires an understanding of the functions of each level of higher education, of each type of institution, and a coordination of the total effort.

The need for coordination at state board or advisory committee levels is well stated by S. V. Martorana. "The various levels of education in the total structure cannot be separated in any extreme and rigid way, and several boards of education with state-level responsibility need to work together in some harmonious way, if the total educational program in the state is to operate effectively" (29).

9. *An adequate master plan provides a basis for further planning.*

Master plans are not static. Needs change; unexpected problems arise; experiments succeed or fail; the need for redirection becomes apparent; even resources and the demands upon them fluctuate. A master plan can provide a benchmark for assessing progress toward established, long-range goals. Planning begets planning, and it is an important base from which to evaluate success. New York is among the states undertaking continuous planning. In New York State, the State Board of Regents is required to prepare a comprehensive plan for the orderly development of higher education every fourth year.

10. *The development of a state plan opens areas of needed research.*

Projections of needs must be made, and population studies undertaken. Estimates of cost, impact studies, mobility studies, and manpower availability all have an influence on state plans and planning. The development of the plan will require not only initial research but also the wise use of research already available.

When several states develop master plans that deal with common problems, data become available that are useful in making state-to-state

comparisons, and that aid in nationwide assessment, planning, and research.

11. *The development of a master plan encourages and facilitates systematizing routine state services.*

Financial accounting is usually the first service to be systematized (for obvious reasons, if accounts are ultimately to be cleared through a central office), but some states have found that, with a master plan, it has also been efficient to develop a single scholarship and tuition plan for all levels of higher education. Placement as a state service might be considered as well.

12. *Cooperative state planning including both public and private institutions improves both state and local planning.*

State plans that do not take into account private resources and enrollments are inadequate. Likewise, state planning data provide private colleges with a broader data base from which to plan; hence, planning at both levels is improved by cooperation.

13. *The development of a master plan reveals inadequacies in legal provisions for community colleges; hence it is a basis for preparing new laws.*

States that are required to revise their master plans periodically are in an excellent position to propose needed new laws to keep up with changing conditions.

14. *A master plan is an effective public relations instrument.*

Ultimately, it is the layman who must know about community colleges if he is to vote the taxes to build and sustain them; therefore, good sense dictates that the state master plan be an effective communications vehicle. It should build the citizen's confidence in the effectiveness and efficiency of the educational plans described. An opportunity is also provided to show the citizen the value of higher education to the state and to the individual, and to inform him of some of the pressing educational needs.

Not a small ancillary benefit of state planning is the bringing together of the layman and professional educator in a common endeavor.

READINGS ON STATE PLANNING

chapter 2

Statewide planning can take place either with or without state control and operation. Therefore, the information presented here is from states with state-operated junior colleges and from states with state planning but locally operated junior colleges. The need for statewide planning and the questions of who does its planning, what is planned for, and how a plan is achieved are also discussed.

NEED FOR STATE PLANNING

D. G. Morrison and Clinette F. Witherspoon indicated a need for state planning when in 1966, referring to twenty-eight states with local junior colleges, they said:

> After approval is granted to establish a junior college there is a system in some states indicating which locality, area, or school district shall proceed to organize its program first . . . . Only six of the states indicated the use of some kind of priority system (32: 20).

These authors also pointed out the great variation in the kind and extent of direction that states provide for the establishment of community colleges, and that many lack a well-defined plan for establishing community junior colleges (32: 50).

In 1967, an article noted that Dr. Gleazer had pointed to statewide planning and development as one of the trends in junior college development. Naming California as the leader in the movement, he identified Florida, New York, Illinois, Michigan, and North Carolina as other states emphasizing statewide planning (40).

Kenneth G. Skaggs, in 1961, in discussing essential steps in establishing junior colleges, stressed the importance of a statewide study of how well

post-high school needs are being met. This is prerequisite to the development of a state plan that can adequately fulfill any needs still unmet (41: 530).

Earlier in 1959, Raymond J. Young highlighted the need for a state master plan when he stated:

> The state master plan, developed as a guide on the basis of facts, is essential for exercise of wise leadership and the ultimate development of the most efficient and economical system of community junior colleges accessible to the greatest number of youth and adults (47: 248).

Responsibility was placed with the state office of education, pointing out that it should have information available on the entire state and that "a state master plan for public community junior college establishment should serve as a guide" (47: 248).

He further cautioned that unless steps are taken to establish an orderly procedure for the control and supervision of junior college establishment in each state, there is risk that an uneven, haphazard growth of institutions with too many badly located, "one room" colleges will occur. In addition, enrollment and tax bases will be inadequate for efficient and economical operation. Dr. Young also stressed the need for the orderly development of new institutions on a planned, coordinated basis, if the objective of making diverse, appropriate types of educational preparation available to the largest number, while simultaneously maintaining high standards of quality and efficiency, is to be fulfilled (47: 246).

Walter M. Taylor pointed out advantages of the state plan in Massachusetts. It assures coverage of 97 per cent of the homes of the state with "geographic accessibility," and provides that equal financial support will be available to all areas, including the poorer ones. Another advantage is that "policy does not have to respond to local pressures but can respond flexibly to differences in regional need" (43: 24).

Planning is not the whole answer, however, as Dr. Taylor pointed out when he said, "The success of the long-range plans depends, again, on the wisdom of the state board and its dedication to its mission" (43: 27).

What happens when there is no state master plan has been well illustrated by F. D. Gurll in discussing the situation that led to the development of a master plan in California. Dr. Gurll stated that in 1959, the introduction of numerous bills made it apparent that pressures from several sources were building up, and that they threatened to destroy the previous pattern of cooperation. The legislature therefore decided not to consider any new bills until a plan had been devised to insure all qualified students of adequate educational opportunity with minimum tax burden. The legislature passed a resolution requesting the liaison committee to develop a master plan that would guide expansion, development, and integration. This was to include not only facilities but also the curriculum and standards in all the institutions of higher education in the state—the plan to extend for ten years and beyond (19: 270, 271).

In a movement as diverse and complex as the junior college move-

ment, it is not surprising to find dissenting points of view. John A. Hannah, president of Michigan State University, argued in 1958 against a state master plan for junior colleges.

> In reviewing the history of the American junior college, I am impressed again by the fact that so many significant developments in our social, political, and educational systems have come, not as the result of decrees imposed from above, but as the healthy spontaneous reaction of intelligent and responsible people to the stimuli of recognized social, political, and educational needs.
>
> Junior colleges did not originate because some one wise man, or group of men, pondered the situation and developed a plan for bringing them into existence. They are not growing in numbers steadily and rapidly because someone has so ordained. Leadership there has been, to be sure, and so young is this movement that much of it is represented here today. But the important point is that such leadership has developed locally in response to local needs and conditions and the clamor of people to be led . . . . This development came about from no master plan. As a natural consequence, we see a wide variety of patterns of development, both within and among the states.
>
> Nor would a uniform plan be desirable or acceptable to the majority of Americans, because if junior colleges are to be fully effective and successful, they must reflect accurately the needs and aspirations of the communities they serve, and be sufficiently flexible to adjust quickly to changing conditions within those communities (20: 492–493).

STATE CONTROL

Writing in the May 1968 issue of the *Junior College Journal,* James L. Wattenbarger pointed out that the concept of locally controlled institutions has long dominated the literature and educational thought in the junior college field, even to the extent of making "suspect" anyone who advocated any other type of control. According to Dr. Wattenbarger, "This local orientation has been the strongest element in the 'mystique' of the community junior college development" (45: 9).

In spite of tradition, however, and in spite of numerous studies with results overwhelmingly favorable to local control and operation of junior colleges, he went on to say, there is a trend toward state operation and support. Since it is unlikely that the trend toward state control can be reversed, he urged clearly identifying the positive results attributable to local operation so that ways can be found to preserve them. There must be, he insisted, "a clear delineation between state and local responsibilities" (45: 11).

With a slightly different focus, Edward Cohen and N. Dean Evans, in the December 1968/January 1969 issue of the *Junior College Journal,* pointed out that "The problem faced by New Jersey (and other states as well) is that of providing the requisite statewide planning while preserv-

ing the pluralism and institutional autonomy which have been recognized characteristic strengths of American higher education" (7).

In the March 1968 issue of the *Junior College Journal,* Clifford G. Erickson stated the case for simultaneous state planning and local operation of public junior colleges. Citing the planning and coordination of a state system of comprehensive community colleges, locally controlled, as responsibilities of the new (1965) Illinois State Junior College Board, he stated that if a creative balance between state coordination and planning, and local autonomy and control could be established, Illinois would have what many have considered the best master plan for higher education yet conceived (11: 26).

Mr. Erickson pointed to the trend toward state planning for higher education, relating it to the following factors:

1. Inadequacy of local planning to meet the needs of higher education
2. Rapid emergence of the community college as an integral part of higher education
3. Recognition of state responsibility for sharing in the financing of community colleges
4. Expansion of federal funding with attendant state responsibilities
5. Developing awareness of educational planning, both state and regional, as a part of public policy
6. Experience in several states where "master plans for higher education have been developed which assign a unique and important role to the community college" (11: 23).

Kermit C. Morrissey strongly supports state control as a means of insuring state planning and coordination. In discussing the Massachusetts system in 1966, he said, "I do not propose to argue with the past, but to suggest that recent changes in the American economy and in the distribution of the population raises the issue of control in a new way."

He pointed out that although local control has been successful in many states in the past, it may become less effective as a method of operating colleges in a future characterized by economic change and population mobility. Dr. Morrissey anticipated increased participation by both the federal government and the state in the development of community colleges in the years ahead.

Among the advantages of a system of state control such as that in Massachusetts, Dr. Morrissey lists the following:

1. The entire state can become the planning unit, and criteria can be set to insure the optimum development of each college.
2. "A state system, effectively coordinated with all four-year and graduate divisions, helps to insure the best use of available funds and resources."
3. A state system frees community colleges from many local pressures, conflicts between boards and school operating heads, and pressures from a single group or industry.

4. "Equality of educational opportunity is best assured by a system of state control which establishes minimum standards in all schools and in all programs. This applies to fiscal support as well as to the application of policy guidelines."

5. A state system facilitates recruitment of professional personnel.

6. "A state system encourages innovation through direct communication between schools and the board."

7. A state system avoids expensive and unnecessary program duplication.

8. "Finally . . . no state legislation or appropriation affecting community colleges in Massachusetts has been seriously considered by governors or members of the General Court unless the specific bill or appropriation has been recommended by the Massachusetts Board of Regional Community Colleges."

These are potent arguments, but arguments, it seems, more for state planning and coordination than for required state operation and control. Dr. Morrissey did point out that Massachusetts community colleges have financial autonomy and responsibility. He stressed that what has been accomplished in Massachusetts is a clear definition of function for each unit of public higher education, making it difficult, if not impossible, to build unjustifiable empires. In this system "cooperation is essential; moreover, it works to the advantage of all participants" (31: 16-19).

California and Florida are examples of states operating under a state master plan and with considerable state coordination, but with strong predilections toward local operation. Thus Basil Clark, writing in 1964, commented on California's strong traditions of local control and autonomy in junior college curriculum matters. Dr. Clark emphasized the belief that local governing boards and institutions should retain the authority for developing new programs or making program changes, but at the same time he called attention to the need for reasonably uniform quality controls and coordination among educational institutions at the state level.

He cited the need to keep institutions in step with local needs and demands in a dynamic society as one of the bases for a strong belief in local control. Stating that each of the more than seventy California junior colleges was meeting the highly individualized needs of its clientele in a unique manner, Dr. Clark stressed the point that up to 1964, California had not "been forced into a state imposed lock-step" (5).

John Lombardi, commenting on the creation of the Board of Governors of the California Community Colleges in 1968, again stressed California's determination to achieve statewide coordination and planning without the loss of local control. In March 1968, he noted that when they created the board, the legislators wrote safeguards into the law to allay fears that such a board, with exclusive concern for junior colleges, might mean the erosion of the tradition of local control. "Assurances on the latter

point were inserted in almost every paragraph of the law," Dr. Lombardi added (27: 27).

In 1960, Dr. Wattenbarger, writing about Florida's plan for junior colleges, similarly stated that the council set down as a first principle of sound community college development that local control was essential. He pointed to the relatively slow growth and development of junior colleges and the likelihood of their becoming four-year colleges, thus abandoning their junior college functions as liabilities of centralized state control.

As a second principle, the council subscribed to joint state and local responsibility for financial support of junior colleges so that an adequate financial floor could be assured by the state, permitting the local community to set the ceiling at its level of capability.

The need for continuing evaluation and program analysis was emphasized as the final principle. When evaluation shows need for improvement, steps to accomplish it should follow. "One of the most effective ways to do this is through state coordinated planning and study" (46: 52-53).

Starting in 1964, New York State's statutory requirement each year develops a "statewide plan for the orderly development of higher education," and at the same time takes into account the master plans of the state university, the city university, and 167 privately controlled institutions. S. V. Martorana has pointed out that "the new statute gave a new, strong impetus to coordinated planning" (30: 12).

Concern for statewide planning is, of course, not limited to states operating under state master plans as shown in studies, consultants' reports, and articles written about junior colleges in, for instance, Maryland, New Jersey, Oklahoma, and Iowa. Regarding governance in Maryland, Frank B. Pesci and Royal Hart wrote in February 1968, that those who believe in autonomy for Maryland's community colleges agree that they have a distinct and legitimate role to play in higher education. They favor local control but believe that statewide leadership and coordination are essential (38).

Broad statewide responsibilities were given to the New Jersey Department of Higher Education by the Higher Education Act of 1966, according to Angelo C. Gillie. Besides creating the department, the act made it responsible for conducting research on higher education needs; developing and maintaining a comprehensive master plan for higher education in New Jersey; establishing new colleges; setting minimum degree requirements and admission standards; handling higher education appropriation requests to the legislature; and processing federal funds to higher education (16).

Oklahoma provides an interesting example of a state with a dual system of junior colleges. One system is wholly controlled and supported by the state, the other is controlled and supported locally; both are coordinated into a state system of higher education. E. T. Dunlap

pointed out in 1963 that "the Oklahoma State System of Higher Education is the State's plan for public education beyond high school" (8: 36).

Dr. Dunlap described higher education in Oklahoma as a coordinated system of colleges and universities, and indicated that state coordination is provided in the areas of fees and finances, standards of education, functions, courses of study, degrees, and budget recommendations. Operation and management are vested in local boards of regents. Dr. Dunlap indicated that the basis for coordinating the dual system lies in the accreditation of all private and municipal junior colleges by the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education; this makes them, in effect, associate members of the state system. Thus, they "are expected to maintain the same kinds of general institutional standards as are maintained by like institutions in the same system" (8: 42).

Not all states achieve a statewide system by fiat or statutory decree. In fact, most seem to have reached it in stages. Such was Iowa's case in 1965, as shown by Louis R. Newsham.

> The emergence of an area system of post-high school education which will guarantee the availability of vocational-technical courses and provide for the initial or later addition of full community college work is regarded by many Iowa educators and laymen as an intermediate step toward a statewide system of comprehensive area community colleges (34).

The foregoing illustrate different patterns of organization and control, different degrees of state operation and local operation, and, in fact, quite divergent points of view toward the role of the state in the operation of public junior colleges. The overriding factor throughout, however, is not state control but state coordination, and this is an outgrowth of state planning.

INVOLVEMENT

It is difficult, if not impossible, from reading the literature on state planning, to discern more than a partial answer to the question of who is involved, and with what influence, in state planning. Answers to this question lie in at least five categories: official agencies, state committees or councils, appointed or contracted survey teams, groups characterized by their members' outside interests, and individuals.

In several states the legislative body has stimulated, or even mandated, a statewide study and plan, either designating an agency or appointing a committee to be responsible for preparing them. Hence, the regents in New York were made responsible for developing a plan in 1964, and annually thereafter; the liaison committee in California in 1959 was requested to prepare a master plan; and the Illinois Board of Education instructed to produce one for higher education. These groups in turn, in some cases, have appointed or employed a study group to gather evidence of needs, conditions, opinions, etc., or even to draw up a tentative plan.

Groups with responsibility for statewide planning, other than agencies or official bodies such as state regents (and sometimes even these), are often characterized by the positions or vocations of individual members. The initial community college survey group in North Carolina in 1950 included professional educators from junior and senior colleges (both public and private), attorneys, legislators, industrialists, businessmen, and other laymen. The study groups in Illinois included representatives of faculty, administration and board, and laymen from both public and private enterprise. The Colorado Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education, as another example, includes one member each from agriculture, labor, and business, two each from the state's four Congressional districts, and one member-at-large. It further stipulates that no more than five members may be appointed from any one political party (22).

The initiative, leadership, and influence of individuals in bringing about successful statewide planning should by no means be discounted. Without a doubt, every state with a viable master plan can point to a leader, just as Walter M. Taylor spoke of the efforts of Kermit C. Morrissey when he wrote, "There is practically unanimous agreement in Massachusetts that the program might have been stillborn, however, had not one man"s energy and drive been *there* on the spot, daily, weekly, monthly" (43: 25).

Who develops a master plan, then, varies from state to state. A master plan may start with the legislature, a governor, a state superintendent, or a regent; it often involves a separate study group and, in many cases, looks to the initiative and drive of one or more vigorous, influential leaders for culmination.

PRIORITIES

Virtually all state planning groups become involved with priorities of one kind or another: budget, location, development of new institutions, and the expansion of old priorities in assignment of programs. Attention is also directed to making estimates of various kinds: population growth, needed programs, higher educational enrollments, capital outlay, operational costs, and the readiness of areas to develop community colleges.

The initial planning groups are often concerned with structure: the relationships among various complementary institutions comprising a system of education; the place, functions, and role of the public junior college; plans for control and administration of higher education generally or community colleges in particular; the scope of services; and the available type of education needed in relation to those needing it, considering population density and travel time as well as tuition and ability to pay.

Other problems of interest to the state planning groups are academic transfer, scholarships, curriculum adequacy, needed amendments to the laws, intercollegiate athletics, fraternities, degree requirements, federal funds, and even the approval of staff.

ACHIEVING STATE PLANNING

Articles describing the development of state plans in state after state include such statements as "following a series of studies . . . ." The phrase may continue with such words as "authorized by the legislature," "by committees of the legislature," "by state agencies," etc. Hence, it is axiomatic that statewide planning will follow intensive study by some group, often appointed by the governor or state superintendent, or instructed to make the study by the legislature as pointed out earlier in this chapter. Probably a series of studies before a state plan is devised and adopted is more common than a single study. In this manner, Mr. Erickson referred to "several decades of study of higher education . . . in Illinois" (11: 24).

The experience of North Carolina will serve to illustrate the process of arriving at a state plan (2: 8-11).

1. In 1950 the State Superintendent of Public Instruction authorized a survey of North Carolina's need for community colleges.

2. The survey, conducted by a broadly representative committee of professional educators and laymen with a full-time director and staff, was published in 1952.

3. Legislation that grew out of the recommendations of the survey committee was not passed by the General Assembly in 1953.

4. Small grants-in-aid were made to existing community colleges in 1955, thus giving them some state identification.

5. Passage of the Community College Act of 1957 formalized state participation on a limited basis.

6. In 1959 the first of the industrial education centers (destined to become a large group) opened as the state's response to vocational-technical needs.

7. In 1961 the Governor's Commission on Education Beyond High School was appointed.

8. In 1962 the commission's report was published.

9. In 1963 the commission's recommendations were enacted into law, and the community colleges and industrial education centers became a single system.

10. In 1963 a Department of Community Colleges was established by the State Board of Education, and a director was appointed.

Thirteen years, two major studies, an unknown number of smaller, related substudies, and several sessions of the General Assembly all passed by before the community college movement in North Carolina culminated in anything resembling a state system operating under a state plan.

The literature on state planning for junior colleges has made clear the need for it—major advantages that result from adequate state planning, such as equitable distribution of educational opportunity and the means of supporting it; some problems inherent in efforts to coordinate at the

state level diverse and semi-autonomous institutions; trends in state planning and administration; and ways in which state planning is brought about. The next chapter examines the plans themselves.

THE MASTER PLANS

chapter 3

This chapter is an analysis of the content of the master plans. Together the plans reflect the states' concern for meeting the needs of citizens beyond, or at least outside, the public school levels as systematically, efficiently, economically, and as nearly adequately as possible. The content of the state plans reviewed is presented in the following categories: philosophy and objectives; curriculum; facilities; students; faculty; finance; and organization and coordination.

PHILOSOPHY AND OBJECTIVES

The following statement of philosophy in the New Hampshire state plan is typical of philosophies expressed in state plans.

> In fulfillment of our aspiration to *equal* opportunity for all, the State should open higher educational opportunities: for women as well as men, for the deprived as well as the well off, for the average as well as the brilliant, for the technician as well as the scholar, for the mature as well as the young, and for residents of rural as well as of urban areas.
>
> Each man is entitled to define and pursue his own happiness. Such pursuit implies the freedom of each man to make his own choices. But free choice is meaningful to individuals only to the degree that alternatives are open and conditions exist which enable the individual to select among them. The policies of the state should not limit the educational choices open to its citizens. Ideally, New Hampshire should make it possible for its students to choose whether to study: out of the State or in it, in a private school or a public one, close to home or away from it, or for immediately marketable skills or knowledge more remotely applicable.

> Primarily, State policy should be to create the opportunities for each citizen to attain his goals. Only secondarily and incidentally should the higher educational goals of the State seek to serve the interests of the State. In the long run such policies, in fact, will best serve both the individual and the State. Adequate educational opportunities will enable our youths to become responsible citizens, able to make meaningful contributions to society (35: 1).

The recurring theme in state plans is that the comprehensive junior college serves two main functions: (a) to develop individual members of society, and (b) to improve society itself. These are by no means discrete functions since society's improvement depends on the development of the individuals who make up that society; nor are they the same function since the needs of society itself must be considered in the development of programs that comprise the community college.

The needs of society are stated in both general and specific terms. In general terms, state planning groups enunciate state need for an educated citizenry or decry the substantial loss to society of so many qualified young people who do not enroll in college or, having enrolled, drop out before attaining their goals. As stated in the Oregon report (37: 213), "With an expanding economy calling for more and more highly trained men and women, the waste of high-ability students becomes something America cannot afford to continue." Considering community colleges and even total education a state responsibility, planning groups point to the need to eliminate such barriers to education as lack of individual financial resources.

In specific terms, attention is focused on society's need today for professional, technical, and vocational skills, and on the responsibility of the community college to ascertain and meet the needs of the home community.

The individual's right to self-fulfillment through education is either stated or implied by many planning groups. It may be stated in terms of an open-door admissions policy requiring only high school graduation or a minimum age for entrance, or in terms of curriculum or guidance needs to meet the many and varied interests, abilities, ideals, and goals of the individuals who comprise the student body. The one stated limitation is that educational opportunities be made available commensurate with the individual's ability to profit from them. In other words, opportunities should be open, not indiscriminately, but to those who seek them and can benefit from them. Examined in this light, the *same* educational opportunity does not thereby provide *equal* opportunity for all individuals.

An occasional state report describes the community college as a multipurpose institution, generally fitting somewhere between high school and senior college, having characteristics of both, wholly identifiable with neither, and adaptable and flexible enough to meet the changing needs

of society and of individuals. It is not viewed as an embryonic four-year college.

The depth of state concern for the education of its citizens is well expressed in the New York report (33: 9). "As long as there is a difference in the size of the total reservoir of college-educable persons and the actual enrollment, whatever the reason to explain it, the Regents feel that the State's achievement in higher education is not at the level it should be."

CURRICULUM

Curriculum adequacy is probably the best single measure of the depth of commitment to stated philosophy and objectives in a community college. "Open door," for example, has little meaning unless a variety of appropriate educational opportunities are available once the student is inside. Failure to realize his original goals should not mean the end of educational opportunities to the student.

This is nowhere better stated than in the Indiana plan, which says: "If a community college is going to serve a large proportion of the citizens of the community, it has to embrace a wide range of purposes, provide the breadth of program essential to meet their needs, and develop the ability to deal with the wide range of students thus attracted. A variety of purposes is commonly ascribed to community colleges—general education, transfer courses, career programs, adult opportunities, developmental or remedial instruction, guidance services, and community service. While each institution cannot hope to fulfill all such functions equally well, it must show the willingness to venture in new directions. Frequently this means developing new programs for specific ends, and the comprehensiveness of the community college curriculum results" (23: 47).

Emphasis on general education, college-parallel work for transfer to a senior college, occupational preparation, adult or continuing education, and the related services of guidance and counseling can be found in most state plans. The need for remedial work is recognized in some. To give added emphasis to the diverse nature of the community college in its attempt to meet needs ranging from adolescent to senior-citizen levels, from leisure-time activities to vocational skill development, to college, or to semiprofessional and technical levels, planning groups use the term "comprehensive" community college to describe their public junior colleges.

GENERAL EDUCATION

There is no consensus in the definition or use of the term, "general education." It is used to describe different concepts in different plans. In some plans it refers to education for the development of people as citizens or as effective members of society. In others, it refers to the first

two years of college-parallel courses, usually taken for transfer, loosely covering man's cultural heritage. For whatever purpose, not only youth but adults will seek and receive continuing education of more variety and for longer periods than ever before at the colleges and universities of the country" (23: 15).

COLLEGE-PARALLEL PROGRAM

The transfer or college-parallel program is aimed to meet the needs of students with a wide range of abilities who intend to transfer to a four-year college after completing successfully one or two years at the junior college or who want only two years, not four, of college-parallel work.

Admission to the college-parallel program of a community college presupposes preparation for college, usually high school graduation, but it is likely to be easier to obtain than admission to most senior colleges and universities. Successful completion of such a program in some states means attainment of the associate in arts or associate in science degree.

An overriding concern of the college-parallel program is articulation with the program of the senior institution to which the two-year graduate will transfer. It is not easy to achieve the curriculum freedom desired by the community college and meet the often exacting requirements of the senior institution, but some states have succeeded by taking the initiative at state levels or by developing initiative for articulation in the senior institutions.

OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

If common estimates of the number of times a worker will change jobs (and perhaps even careers) during his working life are even fairly accurate, occupational training at many levels will be an increasing need. The state plans, almost without exception, call attention to occupational needs of several types or levels. Technical programs, usually of two-year duration and often containing courses that are found to be transferable to specialized programs in some four-year institutions (although not planned for that purpose), are a recognized need. Vocational programs, usually shorter and with more emphasis upon vocational skills development, are found in most plans.

Occupational programs tend to reflect two markets: (a) a general area or a state market for personnel within a cluster of commonly found occupations, for example, business, government, or health service personnel; (b) a more local, more specialized market for those with particular skills needed in local or area industries. It is axiomatic that community colleges must be a specific educational resource for local industries and agencies.

Even as articulation with four-year institutions is a problem in college-parallel programs, so articulation with high schools may be a major problem in occupational programs. As pointed out in the Michigan plan

(p. 10), "Vocational-technical, occupational education must have its initial beginnings early enough in the secondary school to permit close integration and coordination through the late high school years and into the community college program."

Continuing or adult education, consisting of part-time and short courses in the evening, is the major way the junior college can assist the community to keep up with the constant retraining demands of ever-changing occupational patterns. New industries, changing careers, and job mobility all bring to the college the challenge and the burden of keeping the community occupationally viable. The Massachusetts plan calls this the test of the flexibility and adaptability of the college.

How the community college will seek to meet cultural, recreational, and avocational needs within the community will vary, of course, from place to place depending upon the nature of the community and the availability of other resources. Meeting such needs seems a responsibility of the community college beyond question.

DIVERSITY

The diversity of curriculum purposes is well stated in the Kansas plan (24: 5, 6).

The community junior college offerings should meet the needs of:

1. The high school graduate who plans to obtain a baccalaureate degree, but through either preference or necessity desires to live at home for the first two years
2. The high school graduate who desires training as a technician, highly skilled craftsman, or other semiprofessional requiring specialized study beyond the high school
3. The high school graduate who goes directly into the world of work, but later needs post-high school education that can be met in local classes
4. The high school nongraduate who desires to return for special training, vocational upgrading or retraining, or for general educational programs (subject to local regulations)
5. The individual who desires to continue attending school for personal, vocational, or avocational reasons
6. Individuals who, because of world, state, or community developments, want specialized training in a public service endeavor. Examples are civil defense and training of scout leaders.

The state plans recognize that many of our citizens are somehow undereducated. Effective remedial education of some kind must be devised to offset the sobering fact that many people reach adulthood without the educational foundation it was assumed they would receive in elementary and high school. The hope that the community college can deal effectively with this problem is better articulated than is any way of accomplishing it.

The Illinois, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania plans call attention to the need for research in the junior college, and others refer to the need for vocational studies, studies of dropouts, etc. The Virginia plan (p. 84) sets forth the premise that "Technical education must be interwoven with general education, otherwise the separation of different kinds of education will lead to a stratified society." Both of these important problems appear to have been of less than major concern to the state planning groups.

FACILITIES

Facilities are a catalyst to bring philosophy and objectives on the one hand, and curriculum on the other, into a meaningful relationship. Without adequate facilities, the finest objectives and the best-planned curriculum may not be attained; yet several state plans either omit or deal in a cursory manner with facilities.

Some planning groups support the need for varied facilities to accommodate a diverse program of vocational and technical courses in addition to the usual academic classrooms and laboratories. In fact, the lack of appropriate facilities and equipment is recognized by some as obvious deterrent in the development of a comprehensive community college. The Massachusetts plan (p. 10) deals extensively with the need for new and adequate facilities, and sums up the problem by saying: "The policy of initiating new colleges in old plants has probably restricted the full development of the community college potential in its region or made it difficult or impossible to attain a desirable level of quality."

Based on considerable experience in opening new colleges in temporary facilities, the Massachusetts plan analyzes the pros and cons of this policy. In its favor are such factors as the speed with which community college services can be made available to the community, the small per-student capital investment permitting amortization before new facilities are available, and the important advantage of being able to plan the permanent facilities from known data about the student body instead of planning for a hypothetical enrollment.

The disadvantages, however, outnumber and perhaps outweigh, the advantages. They include the poor image of the college that old facilities can give the public, often in contrast to the fine, modern high schools from which the students come; the inadequacy of old facilities in fulfilling some functions such as library and student services; and the delay in developing certain aspects of the program for lack of specialized instructional space and equipment. Renovations are frequently not ready on schedule, necessitating an additional move or a decentralized operation with ensuing diverted energies. Old plants are expensive to maintain and operate, and often unsuited to their intended purposes. Frequently too small, they restrict enrollments, contrary to the spirit of the open-

door concept, and their space limitations may become program limitations as well.

SPECIAL NEEDS

State plans note peculiar problems of the community college, including the need for more library and study space, larger parking areas, and better student service facilities than may be needed in residential colleges. Dormitories are either not recommended at all or not permitted with state funds, and are usually recommended only for students outside of commuting range who are enrolled in a program not available in their home district. Community recreational needs are considered in plans that recommend the use of the college as a cultural center or that suggest the construction of facilities such as a theatre-auditorium for both college and civic use.

The construction of facilities is often a joint state-local responsibility, but in some states (e.g., Oregon), state funds may not be used for site acquisition, student housing, or spectator facilities.

UTILIZATION

Space utilization has come under study in several states in two different ways: either in terms of the percentage of optimum daily use achieved, or in terms of year-round use. Both the Illinois and the Oregon plans, for example, call for consideration of space utilization in allotting state funds.

While states do recognize the relationship between a minimum desirable full-time enrollment (F.T.E.) and efficiency in the provision and use of facilities, minimum desirable F.T.E. figures vary from state to state, or in the same state from first to subsequent years. Hence, the recommendations of Massachusetts, Colorado, Michigan, etc., all differ.

STUDENTS

State master plans show that the community junior college is considered essentially a commuter college, with dormitories allowed in a few states for only distant or nonresident students. Evidence for this appears *positively* in forthright statements and in descriptions of the community college, and *negatively* in the prohibition of dormitories or the use of state funds to build them. An illustration of this point appears in the Kansas plan: "As a matter of policy, inasmuch as community junior colleges are primarily commuter institutions, approval of the State Authority upon recommendation of the Advisory Council for Community Junior Colleges should be obtained prior to erecting dormitories" (24: 7). Colorado is an exception. Since more than one-third of the community college students enroll from outside the college residence area, and since some programs are available only in the population centers, dormitories

are provided for them. The Indiana plan illustrates well the commuting nature of the junior college population when it says: "The locally accessible college enables many to attend while living at home; this frequently represents the difference between going and not going to college. Furthermore, community college students tend to be working students. A high proportion work part time while attending college, and an even greater number work during the summer and other vacations" (23: 46-47).

ENROLLMENT

The excessive cost of operating community colleges for small enrollments is recognized in the plans, some of which suggest minimum potential enrollments before colleges are built. Thus the Massachusetts plan suggests that no community college should be started unless a minimum F.T.E. potential of 300 exists, with a two-year potential of 750, and a ten-year potential of 2,000. Virginia proposes a minimum of 400; New Hampshire, 500 for efficient operation; and Texas, 500 in the college-parallel program by the end of three years, and 1,000 in all programs in five years. Colorado wants assurance that at least 600 will enroll at the start. Illinois, Michigan, and Ohio suggest an F.T.E. of 1,000. Only a few states mention maximum enrollments.

Typically, the plans reveal state aspirations to put junior colleges, hence more educational opportunity, within commuting distance of from 85 to 100 per cent of the residents; several say they expect more and more youths to avail themselves of this opportunity with two results—an increase in the educational level of the state's population and a lessening of pressure on over-burdened public four-year institutions. Florida's experience tends to confirm the first point. "The provision of opportunities in junior colleges has resulted in a substantially higher percentage of high school graduates in Florida continuing their education than had been possible in the past" (13: 9, 10).

ADMISSION

Admission to college-parallel courses is generally considered open to high school graduates and to those with equivalent education. However, admission to the junior college generally is less restrictive, depending upon age (typically eighteen), purpose, specific need, qualification, or ability to profit from a particular program. Some states permit students to complete high school graduation requirements in the junior college or to supplement their high school courses with part-time enrollment in junior college courses. By special arrangement between community colleges and local public schools, North Carolina permits the enrollment of certain school dropouts between the ages of sixteen and eighteen. A prevalent policy is admission to the community college as a "second chance," of students who, because of high school achievement inadequate to warrant admission to senior college, might not otherwise have the

opportunity to find themselves in a college program. This point is amplified in the Indiana plan, which states: ". . . community colleges are accessible academically to a wide range of students. They are nonselective or 'open door' in philosophy because it is their function to provide an appropriate variety of educational opportunities and programs to increasing numbers of students. Students with poor admissions credentials will have to earn their admission to some programs by demonstrating capabilities in developmental, preparatory programs. Just as is true in four-year colleges, community colleges cannot afford to squander limited resources on demonstrably poor risks. The community college is no panacea for academic difficulties; it can only offer reasonable opportunities to overcome them through remedial instruction" (23: 47).

Nearly all state plans recognize the need for adequate guidance and counseling services, especially testing programs, to help the diverse student body find profitable areas of study, where their talents can be put to wise use and their needs met effectively.

FACULTY

Only about half the plans studied, mainly those encompassing all of higher education, deal with faculty qualifications, needs, and concerns; and few of these do so in any great depth. However, faculty are key elements in all of higher education and already a severe shortage of instructors exists in technician and semiprofessional areas in technical institutes and community colleges.

QUALIFICATIONS

The Kansas and Oregon plans endorse the requirement of a master's degree or equivalent, with major preparation in the subject field for instructors in college-transfer programs. Pointing out that the inclusion of several instructors with doctorates adds strength to the teaching program, the Kansas plan (24: 8) states that the board of trustees should encourage the faculty to obtain thirty hours beyond the master's degree.

Both the Kansas and the North Carolina plans emphasize the need for skilled teachers, well educated in the areas they teach, and concerned with student success. Aware of the need for teaching skill, the Kansas plan states, "The community junior college places major emphasis on quality instruction rather than on research and publications." The Illinois plan specifies that junior college teachers be certified in the same manner as high school teachers.

Teachers in technical education programs in Kansas are expected to have a minimum of five years of experience in the programs they teach, including three years of experience in supervising technical employees, or one year of experience and eighteen college hours of mathematics and science. Other plans say little or nothing about the qualifications of vocational-technical teachers.

RECRUITMENT

"Crucial to the success of higher educational enterprise, and particularly so at a time of great expansion, is the recruitment and training of faculty personnel," according to the Pennsylvania plan (p. 38). In Illinois alone in 1964, the need for new faculty members (junior and senior colleges) each year until 1975 was estimated at 1,250 for expansion, and another 1,840 for replacement. In the words of the Illinois plan, "To find over 3,000 new faculty members each year is a prodigious task, but to find 3,000 whose qualifications are equal to those now found in Illinois institutions will be virtually impossible."

The need for adequate salaries to meet expanding faculty requirements is recognized in some of the master plans. The Massachusetts plan points out that the community college salary schedule is rapidly becoming noncompetitive; the California plan states that salary is the basic problem in attracting people from business and nonteaching occupations; the Illinois plan points out that to maintain the average quality of faculty, its institutions must meet competitive salary levels as well as other benefits; the New York plan suggests that salary levels must compare favorably with, even though they do not equal, off-campus offers.

To attract a greater percentage of faculty with doctorates, the Illinois plan states that benefits must be improved in relation to government and business. The Massachusetts plan (pp. 38, 40) recommends that the university, with the advice and cooperation of the community colleges, initiate teacher-education programs, especially in occupational education, for both prospective teachers and those already in service. Recommended also are in-service programs in all colleges for orienting and upgrading their own faculty, and a continuous statewide program of meetings, conferences, in-service training, and staff-development workshops. Other incentives to attract and hold junior and senior college faculty listed in the plan are: academic freedom, leaves of absence with pay, faculty participation in educational decisions, more research opportunities, salary equalized with that of four-year faculties, registration of faculty resources in various sections of the state, reduced number of teaching hours, tenure, additional fringe benefits, and even a reappraisal of nepotism policies.

The Commonwealth Professional Incentive Program recommended in the Pennsylvania plan (p. 38) could prove an effective inducement to prospective faculty members. The plan would provide loans up to $6,000 to prospective college teachers over a period of three years for full-time education. While the student pursues full-time graduate work, the loans are to be noninterest-bearing. Interest would begin on completion of graduate study, and the loans forgiven at the rate of 25 per cent for each year of full-time teaching in a Pennsylvania institution of higher learning.

FINANCE

Marked differences exist among the states in the ways they pay for the operational costs of community colleges, just as there are great differ-

ences in the costs themselves. Estimates or calculated costs of operation per student, usually stated in terms of full-time equivalents, vary from $635 (1966-67) in Massachusetts to $1,000 in Delaware, and state plans note rising costs. Hence, the Colorado plan estimates 1968 costs at $930, but 1970-71 costs at $1,050. Massachusetts recommends an increase in support from the 1967 average costs of $635 to approximately $900. Colorado notes that operational costs have risen 70 per cent in ten years and are rising at the rate of 5 per cent per year.

Many plans indicate the share of operating costs that the state will pay (sometimes including federal funds). In this manner Illinois indicates that the state will pay approximately 50 per cent; Kansas, up to 50 per cent; California recommends an increase from 30 per cent (1960) to 45 per cent by 1975 from the State School Fund; New York pays one-third of the costs; North Carolina pays 65 per cent, but specifies that certain costs, such as faculty and administrative salaries, materials, and supplies will be met by the state, and that other costs, such as operation and maintenance of plant, are local expenses.

Almost all of the states support the concept of shared operational expenses: some have state (including federal) and local (Washington); some have state, local, and student (North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Delaware); and some have state and student, as in Massachusetts.

Florida has adopted a minimum foundation plan, to which counties must make a minimum contribution in accordance with their ability to pay. Michigan sets forth the premise that state funds should be provided in full for a basic community college program, and, on a pro-rated basis, for all programs. Michigan recommends a differential in state support based on need and local tax effort. The Ohio plan calls for a state contribution of $200 per community college student. The Colorado plan notes that, in a period of seven years (1958-59 through 1965-66), operating expenses increased from $561 to $715 per F.T.E. student, local support decreased from 56 to 15 per cent, and state support increased from 25 to 57 per cent.

Not all states have standard rates for reimbursing colleges for operational costs, as is evident from recommendations in Colorado to standardize state reimbursement and from the plans in Florida and Michigan as shown above. Plans in several states note the high start-up operational costs of new institutions. Colorado recommends giving them $35,000 per year as special assistance for the first two years of operation. In addition to high start-up costs, the relatively high cost of operating community colleges with small enrollments is pointed out in state plans.

CAPITAL OUTLAY

There is about as much variation in planning capital outlay expenditures as in planning operational funding. In fact, there seems to be no way to group states together except that typically, capital outlay is a shared state (including federal) and local responsibility in which the state con-

tributes more than half. Thus the Michigan plan calls for funding 75 to 100 per cent of the initial building program from state sources; Illinois, 75 per cent for new construction and rehabilitation of academic buildings and site until 1971, then 50 per cent. New Hampshire recommends that the local community buy and prepare the site and that the state pay for construction and equipment. North Carolina pays for equipment and library books, and furnishes up to $500,000 in matching funds as capital outlay for construction or permanent improvement. The local community is expected to purchase the site and share in construction costs.

The Colorado plan calls for the state to pay construction and operational costs, except for the income from federal funds, tuition, and gifts. State money is not to be used for sites. The Kansas plan recommends that boards of trustees be authorized to levy a tax (limited to two mills) on taxable, tangible property in the community junior college district for up to ten years for capital outlay and bonded debt service, and that the state then contribute not less than $50 per F.T.E. Kansas resident student. Florida permits the issuing of State Board of Education bonds for the county, provides funds from higher education bonds, and contributes $550 per instructional unit from state tax funds and $400 from license tag fees.

The Oregon plan calls for the state to pay up to 65 per cent after deducting from costs any federal appropriation; but as these state funds are pro-rated, considerably less has been contributed to date. The use of state funds for site acquisition or development is not permitted. In New York the local community is expected to pay one-half of the capital outlay cost; in California, all of it (1960), although it has been recommended that the state share the costs when funds permit. Community college sites are purchased with local funds in Virginia, but the state pays all other capital outlay and equipment costs.

Certain restrictions, other than against the use of state funds for site acquisition and development, appear in state plans. For example, state funds in the Kansas plan cannot be used for the construction of dormitories. In the Oregon plan, funds are not recommended for student personnel service facilities or for spectator sports.

Recognizing the value of private colleges to the state in absorbing the student population, the Pennsylvania plan recommends capital assistance funds for them to use wherever need exists for building instructional facilities to accommodate expanding enrollments.

TUITION

Concepts that pervade the state plans regarding tuition include: (a) every individual has a right to an education commensurate with his needs, interests, and abilities; (b) providing such opportunity is an obligation of the state; and (c) economic barriers to education must not be permitted to stand. States discharge their obligation to provide education in quite different ways, however, as their attitudes toward tuition charges reflect.

Practically all state plan views of tuition charges can be included in three categories. At one end of the continuum is California, with a tradition of tuition-free higher education, based on the belief that it is in the best interests of the state. At the opposite end is New Hampshire, which takes a stand against a low tuition rate as being a subsidy to all students whether they need it or not. Most states are in between; they charge as little tuition as they consider feasible, accompanied in most cases by plans to offset any abnormal hardship caused by even moderate tuition. In some plans, tuition is described as part of a shared financial responsibility, where operating costs are equally divided among the students, the community, and the state as in Pennsylvania. Several state plans reflect the belief (Florida's, for example) that junior college education benefits the state's economy as well as the individual. Where reported, tuition and fees vary from about 10 per cent of operating costs to a maximum of 50 per cent.

To offset the economic barrier of tuition to some students, most states recommend scholarships, guaranteed loan programs, or both, with variations in the scholarship program—from those based on academic achievement *and* need, to those based on need alone. That fees should cover the cost of operational expense for noninstruction-related services is a recurring attitude. Nonresident tuition charges are usually more than double those of residents, and in some cases (California, for instance), they are expected to cover at least the state's share of instructional costs.

In some states, one purpose of scholarships is to enable students to choose the institution they wish to attend without being limited by tuition considerations. Experience in Illinois, however, shows the need for coordination, perhaps central administration, of scholarship and student-aid programs. In 1964 Illinois reported supporting eighteen different scholarship and grant-in-aid programs, administered by ten different state agencies or divisions, and without any single source of information about the total number or value of all of the programs. There were marked differences in criteria for awarding scholarships, such as intention to teach or financial need; 21 per cent were awarded without reference to either need or ability.

ORGANIZATION AND COORDINATION

The New Hampshire plan (35: 7, 8) expresses well the diversity of opinion regarding the best method of organizing and administering an effective junior college system when it considers the question of whether junior colleges should be operated as an extension of the university system (and therefore, operated by the university), or by the state department and the state board, or administered by a separate board. It supports the last position and recommends membership on the board by representatives of both the university and the state department to achieve necessary coordination. These three systems, a fourth (autonomy by a local board), and numerous modifications can be found in practice.

New Hampshire cites as dangers in *university* control the possibility of (a) the subordination of junior colleges to four-year institutions in the allocation of funds and staff; (b) restrictive admissions policies; (c) an overemphasis on liberal arts at the expense of technical or vocational training; and (d) orientation away from the community toward the university. It cites as problems in *state* control: (a) overworked staffs preoccupied with elementary and secondary education needs; (b) lack of orientation to collegiate-level needs; (c) less community involvement and participation; and (d) less attention to junior college needs because of the many other demands on the board.

LOCATION OF AUTHORITY

The Massachusetts plan argues for a strong central office staff to administer the community college system and carry out the policies established by the Massachusetts Board of Regional Community Colleges. "Without this the 'system' would not be a system but a series of uncoordinated college units" (p. 34). The Massachusetts plan notes that the lack of a strong central office staff results in a federation of colleges rather than a system of colleges. The functions of the central office are identified as administration, supervision, coordination, operation, leadership, and liaison.

Taking the opposite point of view, the Ohio plan points out that the role of the Board of Regents in Ohio is essentially advisory and stimulative, authority being vested in the board of trustees of each institution.

Perhaps the more typical position is California's. There the plan calls for local boards to have considerable autonomy, but for the State Board of Education to function in a supervisory capacity and prescribe minimum standards. Justifying this position, the plan states: "The junior colleges have been, and ought to be, community based, and locally controlled. However, they are part of the public school system; they exercise a state function; and they are financed with substantial amounts of state funds. Consequently, general goals and standards should be set forth in the Education Code so that the state has authority to enforce the legal provisions pertaining to them" (19).

COORDINATION

"The Board of Higher Education was formed to coordinate and otherwise bring harmony to the disparate boards and institutions of the state system" (Illinois plan, p. 71). To insure coordination of higher education units, many state plans provide for a coordinating council or a board of higher education with at least advisory powers—especially in the area of finance. Often junior college state boards, and sometimes the junior colleges themselves have representatives on the higher education board or coordinating council. The California, Illinois, and Pennsylvania plans exemplify this coordination with varying degrees of complexity. The

California plan calls for a Coordinating Council for Higher Education consisting of twelve members, three each for the junior colleges, the university, and independent institutions. Its functions are advisory: to review operating budget and capital outlay requests, to study new facilities and programs, to consider functional differentiation on programs, to gather data, and to advise various state officials (19).

The Illinois plan calls for a coordinating board with planning, but not administrative, responsibility for higher education. The chairman and one other member of the Illinois Junior College Board would serve on the Board of Higher Education along with representatives of other segments of higher education. The Illinois plan argues for this plan over the single governing board (such as a state board of education) by pointing to the hazard of a single board's tendency to "neglect the function of over-all planning in favor of the more pressing details of everyday governance . . . . It is difficult for a board to govern a large number of diverse institutions in view of the decentralization of the decision-making process. Another difficulty arises from the reluctance of a lay board to meet frequently enough to give each institution the counsel and leadership which both faculties and administrators deem essential" (Illinois plan, p. 71).

The Pennsylvania plan calls for a Community College Coordinating Council, with other boards and councils under a Council of Higher Education for the entire commonwealth system of higher education. The Pennsylvania plan presents two alternative systems. "One is a highly centralized system with power of origination at the state level and with powers delegated to other instrumentalities and institutions by a central body . . . . The other system, the one being proposed, places greater responsibility for the origination of proposals in the hands of institutions and segments of the system but places the responsibility for coordination and allocation in central authority, the Council of Higher Education" (Pennsylvania plan, p. 31). It should be pointed out that the California, Illinois, and Pennsylvania master plans embrace all segments of higher education, whereas many other plans deal only with junior colleges. Whether they are drawn for all of higher education or just for community college education, many of them do call for a separate junior college board.

TWO UNUSUAL PATTERNS

North Carolina and Florida present two unusual patterns of junior college administration. In North Carolina, the State Board of Education, not the North Carolina State Board of Higher Education, administers the state system of community colleges, and it must appoint an Advisory Council to advise the State Board on matters of finance, personnel, curriculum, and articulation. Two members of the Advisory Council must be members of the higher education board or its professional staff, and two must be from institutions of higher education in the state. The State Board of

Education receives junior college recommendations from both the Advisory Committee and the director, and staff of the Department of Community Colleges (36: 9).

In Florida, junior colleges are part of county school systems, and therefore come under the county board. Each college has an advisory committee appointed by the State Board of Education on recommendation of local boards.* All matters pertaining to the junior college must come to the county board as recommendations of the advisory committee, of which the junior college president serves as the executive secretary. The State Junior College Board is the coordinating agency for junior colleges and makes its recommendations to the State Board of Education.

Chief academic officers of the junior colleges, appointed by their presidents, together with the director of academic affairs, Division of Community Junior Colleges as chairman, constitute a council of academic affairs that makes recommendations regarding academic matters of statewide concern to the Council of Presidents.

The Council of Presidents, consisting of the president of each junior college, together with the assistant superintendent for community junior colleges as permanent chairman, serves in an advisory capacity to the State Junior College Board and makes recommendations regarding junior college matters to this board (13: 4, 5).

The Florida system tends to insure that the junior college receives the individual attention it merits through its advisory committee even though it operates under the county board. Academic affairs and other problems of concern to the system of junior colleges receive appropriate professional consideration through organized channels, from the Council of Academic Affairs to the Council of Presidents to the State Junior College Board to the State Board of Education.

STATE FUNCTIONS

Although functions at the state level, by whatever board or council, vary all the way from regulatory to advisory, they appear to be chiefly coordination and planning. That the goal is a system of community colleges, rather than an uncoordinated group, is apparent in many of the state plans. Through planning and coordination, state planning groups aspire to place at least two years of college education in reach of all—or nearly all— their citizens. More than one plan indicates that 95 per cent of the population is the goal to be reached.

Setting minimum standards and guidelines, and apportioning state funds equitably are, of course, important state-level functions to be found in many of the plans. Understandably, the plans differ markedly in the

* On July 1, 1968, under a law passed by the Florida Legislature in special session (January 1968), the local junior college advisory committees were redesignated as Boards of Trustees. Florida's community junior colleges are no longer parts of local county school systems. The new junior college districts continue under the coordination of the State Junior College Board.

amount of detail with which either state or local functions are described. To stimulate and carry on research, to bring about articulation with other segments of education, to stimulate local planning, to supervise, and to administer state policy are other state functions delineated in the plans.

DEVELOPING MASTER PLANS

chapter 4

"Master plan" is by no means a generic term. In one state, it connotes a priority system for establishing colleges; in another, it describes a detailed plan of operating a system of comprehensive two-year colleges; and in a third, it is a plan for all of higher education.

Many plans contain a mix of statutory or other provisions with force of law and recommendations of a governing board or other group. Some deal with citizens' needs and provisions for meeting them in sweeping generalities. Others give detailed formulas for budgetary or other operational procedures.

Comprehensive state plans for all of higher education tend to present community college information with less detail and identity than do plans devoted to community colleges exclusively. In comprehensive plans, as one would expect, community college information is often scattered throughout the report and in some cases is identified as relevant only by inference, as one might infer that information dealing with the first two years of a four-year program would be pertinent to a two-year college. Fortunately, however, provisions for two-year institutions are usually identifiable under whatever aspect of higher education is being presented, i.e., governance, finance, etc. In the Oregon plan, a comprehensive plan for all of higher education, community college provisions are drawn together in a separate chapter.

The published plans appear to be written for different groups of readers. Some appear to be designed primarily for laymen; others, for both laymen and professionals. Some statements lose effectiveness for either group when designed for both. The professional does not need a

detailed statement of the community college philosophy, nor the layman a full account of the formula for deriving the amount of state aid. The argument here is not so much that the plans themselves should be less detailed, but that perhaps state plans need to be supplemented by other publications designed for different groups.

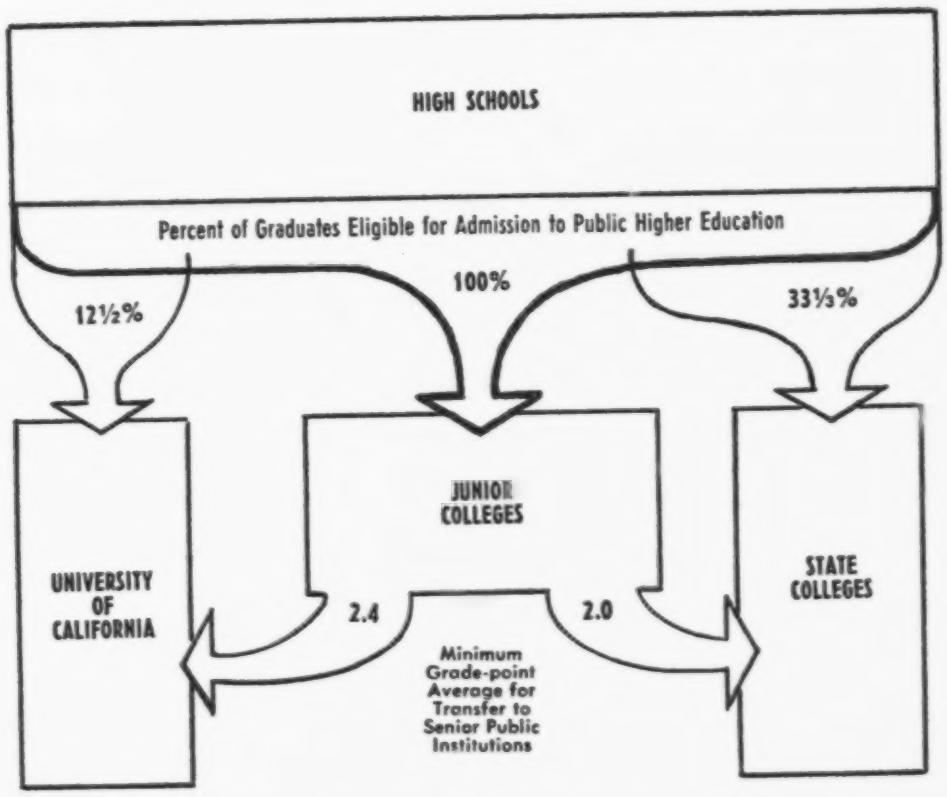
Plans vary as well in certain assumptions made about the reader. In some, it appears that he is assumed to know nothing about higher education in the state. In others, the plan seems instead to supplement information he is expected to have already—the amount of tuition, for example, or whether tuition is charged at all.

EFFECTIVE DEVICES

Several plans have capitalized on the very effective device of presenting either major features of the plan or major recommendations in a short, concise summary, often toward the beginning of the plan, holding the explanatory detail until later in the text. The Illinois plan illustrates this type of presentation. A comprehensive plan for all higher education, it begins with a short résumé of planning for higher education in Illinois, focusing the reader's attention on significant changes recommended and major problems under study. This is followed by "Highlights," ten short paragraphs, each describing a major portion of the immediate plan warranting emphasis. Each chapter of the plan begins with the recommendations pertinent to the content of that chapter, presented in bold-faced type. Only after the recommendations are all presented, does the explanatory material appear in each chapter. Thus the reader can focus immediately on decisions, recommendations, and action instead of background data.

The Indiana report devotes a separate chapter to the commission's recommendations and highlights them by using bold-faced type in blue ink for the text and using black for the chapter title, subheading, and numbers of the recommendations. Thereafter, throughout the report whenever the recommendations are repeated, they appear in the same blue and retain the same number. Thus the reader can quickly identify in subsequent chapters any recommendation he wishes to pursue. The Indiana report is also one of several that focuses attention on all major points by setting them forth in bold-faced type wherever they appear in the discussion.

Most of the plans use tables and graphs to portray quantitative data in summary form, often to show sequence or relationships, as in the case of enrollment projections or organization of staff. Pictures in state plans are rare. A few plans make effective use of figures. The following figure from the California plan conveys a great deal of information at a glance (3: 73).



WHO IS DENIED ACCESS TO PUBLICLY SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS?

1. As a freshman: No graduate from an accredited high school.
2. To upper division work: (a) Students who fail to achieve a "c" average in lower division work; (b) Junior college students who fail to achieve the minimum grade-point average in 56 units of work.

FIGURE 4
Eligibility for Public Higher Education
(Under Master Plan Survey Proposals)

In like manner, the Indiana report simultaneously compares the projected percentage of increase in enrollment of private and public institutions, and compares Indiana with the United States as a whole (23: 22).

	Projected Increase in Enrollment, 1965-1980	
	Indiana Percentage	**United States Percentage**
All institutions	+ 122	+ 103
Public institutions	+ 152	+ 133
Private institutions	+ 68	+ 41

Relationships between the coordinating council and state agencies and institutions, and council functions and membership by representation are all shown in one figure in the California plan.

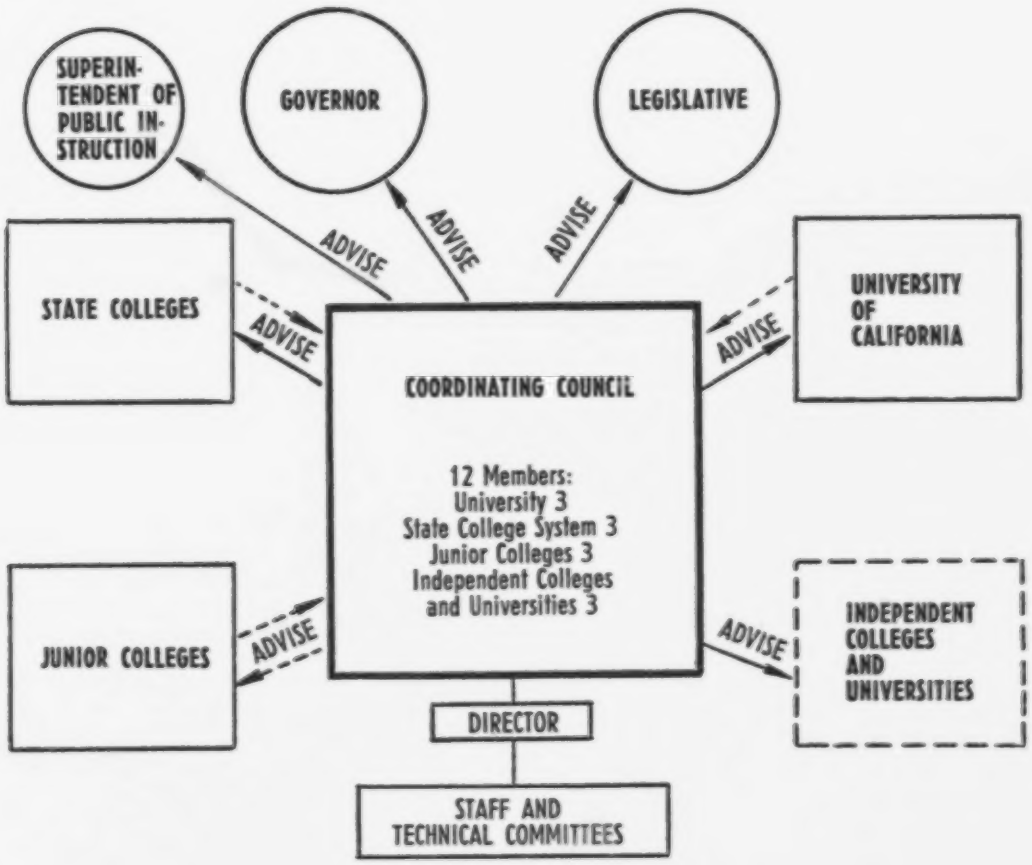
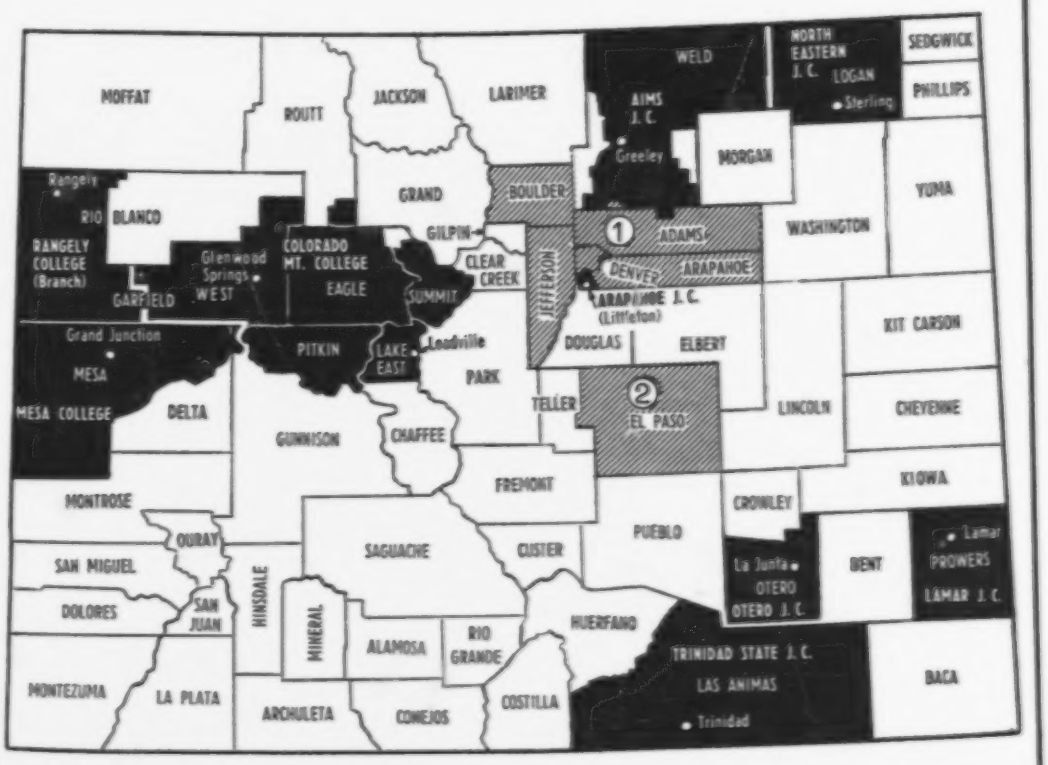


FIGURE 2
Recommended Coordination Structure

Maps are used effectively in several plans to show community college districts. Needless detail reduces the effectiveness of some maps, whereas simplicity tends to enhance it. Figure 6 in the Colorado plan, and Figure 1 in the New York plan are examples of effective ways to show community college districts of other state components of higher education (9: 47), (33: 4).

The open-door concept in the comprehensive community college and its relationship to guidance and counseling, and complex differences in programs and their output in community colleges, technical institutes, and industrial education centers are made clear in simple diagrams in the North Carolina report (36: 7). (See page 40 for diagram)

Figure 6
COLORADO COMMUNITY COLLEGE DISTRICTS
FALL 1967

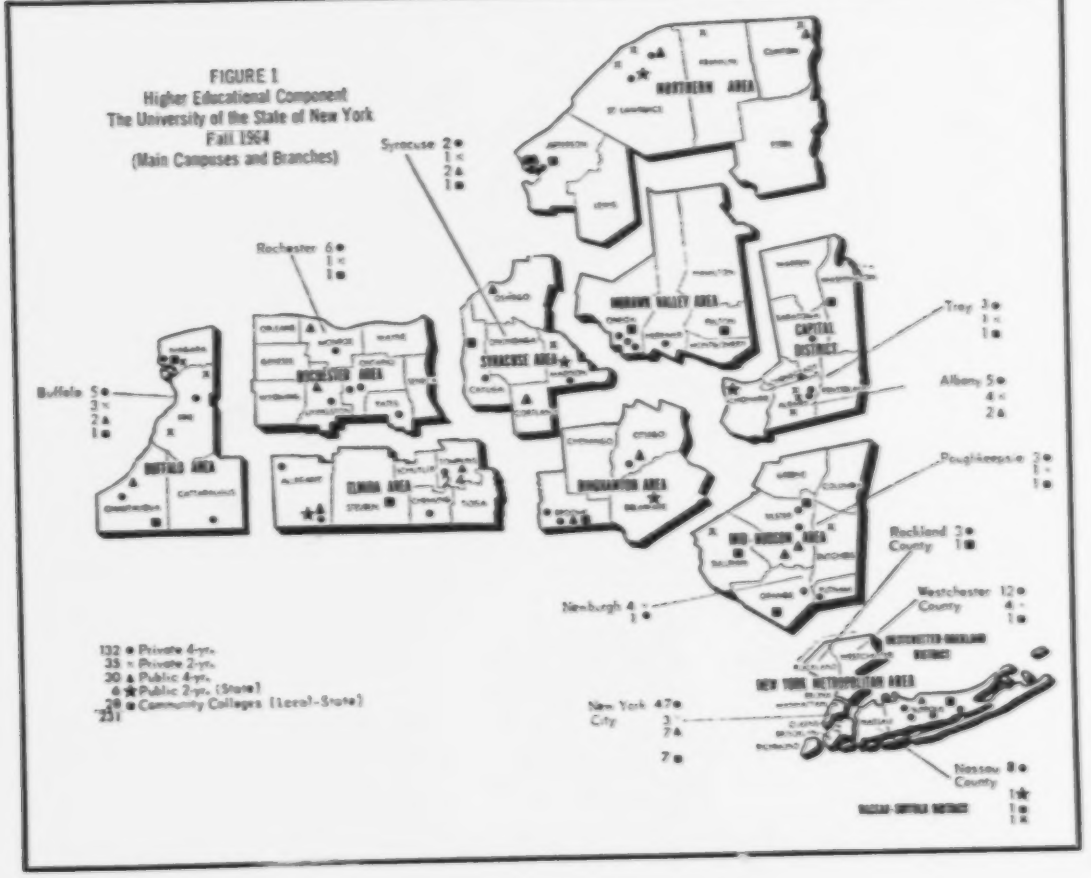


EXISTING DISTRICTS

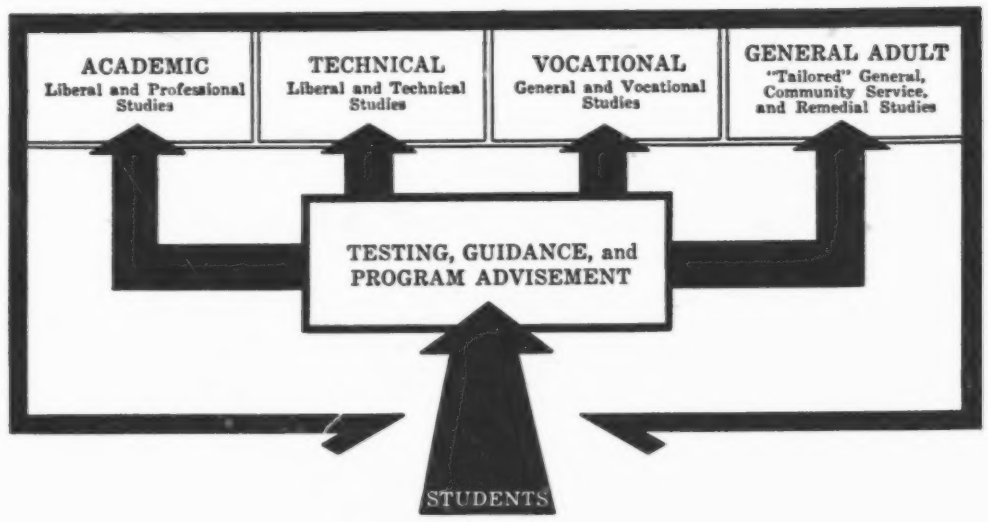
1 COMMUNITY COLLEGE OF DENVER
2 EL PASO COMMUNITY COLLEGE (at Colorado Springs)

} Established by the State Legislature but not yet opened.

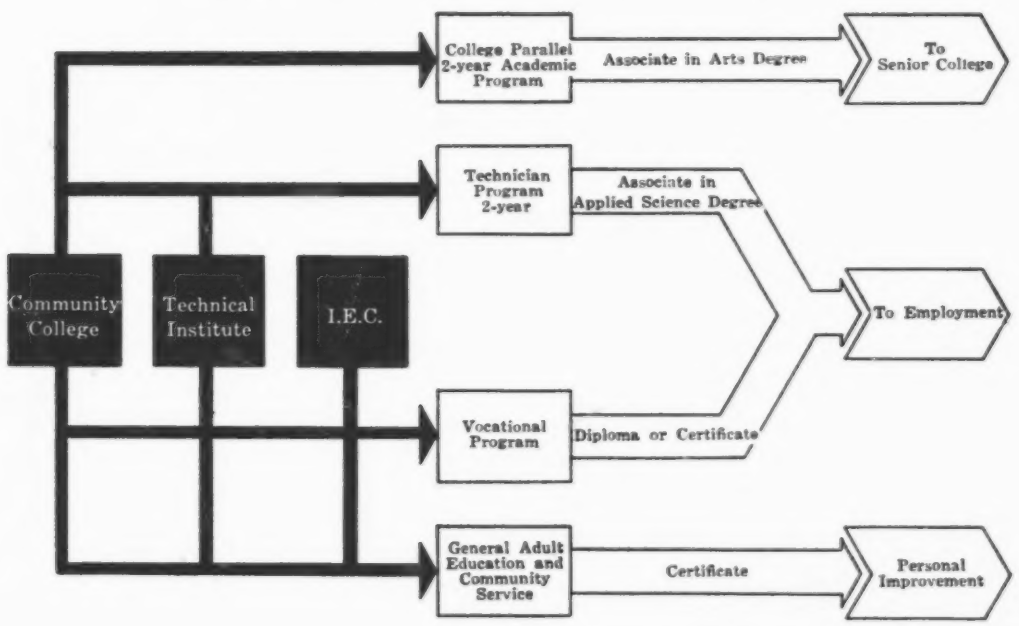
FIGURE 1
Higher Educational Component
The University of the State of New York
Fall 1964
(Main Campuses and Branches)



THE OPEN-DOOR COMPREHENSIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE



EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN INSTITUTIONS



NEGLECTED AREAS

Research, student transfer, need for faculty, desirable faculty characteristics, and student guidance and counseling are areas overlooked in many of the state plans. Several other areas are dealt with inadequately.

Mention of research in the junior college area is omitted entirely in most state plans and dealt with only cursorily in others. Yet there is pressing need to do individual and cooperative research at both state

and local levels and to share the findings. Suggested areas of research are enumerated further on in this chapter.

Failure to mention opportunities for employment in state plans overlooks one obvious chance to recruit faculty either on a local or national scale. Although faculty and staff needs are as important an item in state planning and coordination as other areas of concern, many plans do not deal with faculty and staff.

The disparity between the treatment of the area of student guidance and counseling, and the size of the dropout figures inevitably raises doubt that guidance and counseling have been given sufficient attention at either state or local levels. This area is mentioned in most state plans, but seldom receives treatment in depth.

The general lack of information regarding transfer procedures from junior to senior colleges suggests that it is available from the institutions, for it is probably an individual, not a statewide, matter.

Although lines of authority between state and local levels are dealt with in most plans and coordination is a common concern, what is coordinated, how, and by whom is often not clear to the reader.

Since the community college concept is relatively new and differs from other concepts of higher education, it would be a service to the college and to the reader if provisions for these institutions were easily identified in state plans that deal with all of higher education. In one report, a separate chapter is devoted to community colleges. In others, community college provisions are highlighted in summary form, and in some, they are not easily identified. The philosophy and objectives of the community college are much more likely to be stated in junior college plans than in four-year plans, but they are no less important in the latter.

A detailed history of planning or developing community colleges, or extensive quoting of pertinent state laws probably does not constitute a high-interest introduction to a state plan or report, especially for nonresidents. A short history, however, with emphasis on important achievements supplemented by a summary of extant provisions and new recommendations, enables the reader without access to earlier plans to know where the state stands in its development of junior colleges or if there is a state plan for them.

The importance of private junior colleges in the total provisions for higher education is noted in some state plans, but is omitted in others. As some plans note, although the proportion of enrollment in private institutions is diminishing as it grows in public institutions, private college enrollment is still an important factor in many states. State planning that does not take private resources into account is inadequate. A few states (New York, for example) are making state data on public institutions available to private colleges to improve the data basis for their local planning. Cooperative planning is a growing need.

NEEDED RESEARCH

A study of the master plan indicates a need for research in the following areas:

1. What relationship, if any, exists between size of enrollment and efficiency? Between the number of F.T.E. students and educational effectiveness? Many states relate financial support to the number of F.T.E. students enrolled, but some research casts doubt on F.T.E. as a basis for either efficiency or effectiveness of the institution.

2. What is the relationship between expenditures per F.T.E. student and the quality of the community college? Are there minimum expenditures related to quality?—maximum?

3. What relationship exists between the levels or kinds of degrees held by the teachers and the quality of instruction in community colleges?

4. What are the characteristics of successful community college teachers? Is success in junior college teaching predictable?

5. To what extent are accreditation standards for four-year institutions applicable to two-year colleges? What other standards are needed?

6. To what extent and under what conditions are facilities a curriculum determinant, enhancing it or locking it in?

7. Is there a desirable ratio of vocational students to technical students? To college-parallel students?

8. Are there better solutions to the problem of meeting educational needs in sparsely populated areas than small community colleges? Would grants-in-aid serve as well?

9. What is gained—or lost—by having strong state authority, a single state board, or a strong central staff responsible for the community college system?

10. Are there pupil characteristics that can be used to predict reliably success in various types of community college programs?

11. Is there a demonstrable relationship between the availability of guidance and counseling and the tendency to remain in college, or between the availability of alternative programs and the same tendency?

The findings of research must be shared if improvement is to be constant and universal. In like manner, state master plans should be shared, and each plan made available to all the other states so that all can profit.

CONCLUSION

State planning for community colleges is needed today as never before; fortunately, there is mounting evidence that more and more planning is under way. It is increasingly apparent that state planning must be continuous, flexible, and constantly reviewed and revised in light of changing conditions. Perhaps the case for planning is best stated in the words of the Virginia plan (44: 23). "The greatest gains in junior college growth have occurred in states where the philosophy of the community junior college has been generally accepted and where state-wide plans for the coordinated development of post-high school education have been adopted."

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* Articles taken from the *Junior College Journal* concerning state development have been reprinted and updated in a new publication, *Junior Colleges: Fifty States/Fifty Years,* published by the American Association of Junior Colleges, September 1969.

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